FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE GENDER DISPARITY ON PRIMARY EDUCATION: A CASE OF PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN KIKUYU CONSTITUENCY

## BY

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RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIRMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS DEGREE IN PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.

DECLARATION

I declare that this an original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University

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## DEDICATION

This project research report is dedicated to my Mother Betty Machoka, Father Nicodemus Machoka, my brothers Philip, Fred, Duncan and Herodian.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| AAUW | - American Association of University Women |
| :--- | :--- |
| GAD | - Gender and Development |
| GFC | - Global Fund for Children |
| IIEP | - International Institute for Education and Planning |
| KEAA | - Kenya Education Advocacy Alliance |
| NGOs | - Non Governmental Organizations |
| OECD | - Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| UN | - United Nations |
| UNCRC | - United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child |
| WID | - Women in Development |


#### Abstract

The purpose of study was to analyze gender disparity in primary education of boys; a case of schools public primary education in Kikuyu Constituency, Kiambu County. The study was guided by the following specific objectives: to establish the status of gender disparity in terms of population of boys and girls in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency, to assess gender disparity on the access to primary education by boys in public primary schools, to analyze gender disparity in terms of performance of boys in public primary schools and to determine gender disparity on the retention of primary education of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency. Descriptive research design was used for the study. The population for the study was public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. There are 57 public primary schools in the Constituency. The target population for the study was teachers and head teachers. Systematic random sampling technique was used to sample the schools and the respondents for the study. A total of 48 schools were sampled for the study. A total of 308 respondents were targeted by the study (constituting 260 teacher and 48 head teachers) out of which 252 responded ( 220 class teachers and 32 head teachers). Questionnaires were used as instruments for data collection. Piloting was done to test on the Validity and reliability of the instruments. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics while content analysis technique was used to analyze qualitative data collected using interview schedules. Microsoft EXCEL package was used to analyze the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages was used to describe the data. On the status of gender disparity in terms of population, the study revealed that girls were the majority as indicated by $44 \%$ of the respondents. In terms of access, the study found that $53 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was imbalance. The imbalance was evidenced by the fact that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls were given the first priority in terms of access to school. Factors influencing access to school were found to be high enrolment rates of girls, nature of the society and cultural practices. In regard of disparity in terms of performance, the study found that $94 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was a difference in the performance of Girls and Boys in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. This was evidenced by the finding that $54 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that Boys still performed well regardless of girl-child centered gender support programs. On the disparity in terms of retention, the study found that $79 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there were cases of school drop out. The study also found that $85 \%$ of the respondents indicated that absenteeism prevails in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The study further established that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls absent themselves more frequently than boys. In conclusion the study revealed that there was gender disparity in terms of population of girls and boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency, that there was disparity in terms of access to primary education Kikuyu Constituency where girls were given more priority, besides the disparity in population and access to school in favour of girls, boys still performed better than girls in examinations and that there was disparity in terms of school retention where girls were found to drop out of school in slightly large numbers compared to boys. The study recommended that programs for promoting boy child education should also be ongoing besides the ones promoting the girl child education. It was recommended that another study be done to determine the factors hindering access to schools among boys in other Constituencies which was not the focus of this study.


## CHAPTER ONE <br> INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the Study

Universal education for all children, for both females and males, was adopted as part of the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 2007). According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 2005) in the year 2000, 191 heads of state signed the Millennium Declaration with the aim of achieving gender parity in primary and secondary education in their various countries by 2005, and total universal primary education by 2015 . However, by 2005 , more than 70 countries in sub-Saharan Africa, Asia and the Middle East have failed to reach the gender parity target and were unlikely to do so by the year 2015.

Despite sustained progress, gender equality remains an unattained goal. On average across Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, girls now attain higher grades and have better progression rates than boys in primary and secondary education, and they tend to outnumber boys among new college graduates in most industrialized countries (EAG, 2010). However, women typically earn less than men and are more likely to work irregular hours, hold part-time jobs and have more fragmented careers. These differences are less striking in some countries, notably those where public policies have created favourable conditions for women to fully participate in the economy and society at large. However, full equality remains elusive (OECD, 2004; OECD 2011). Gender equality is not only a moral imperative, it also makes economic sense: gender equality in the labour market is correlated with economic growth and development. Greater economic opportunities for women can lead to stronger, more inclusive and sustainable growth by raising the overall quality of human capital and level of productivity. Higher rates of formal participation in the labour market among women can also help countries tackle the twin problems of low fertility and population ageing (OECD, 2007).

Taking into account the dignity and worth of the human beings and the equality of both men and women, and considering further that. the Universal Declaration of Human Rights stressed the principle of non-discrimination and proclaimed that all human beings are born free, equal in dignity and rights (United Nation, 2000). Everyone deserves the right and freedoms set forth without distinction of any kind irrespective of their sex (United Nation, 2000). Weaver-Hightower (2003) observes that until recently, most policy, practice, and research on gender and education focused on girls and girls' issues. This is contextualized within the notion that in every society women as a group relative to men are disadvantaged socially, culturally, politically, and economically (Ruxton, 2004). All of these realms, of course, are integral to the study of schooling. In early interventions in education, particularly by liberal feminists and some radical feminists, schools were seen as significant causes of inequality for women and, more important, as a key institution through which such inequalities could be dismantled (Arnot, David, and Weiner, 1999). In the United States, such discussions of gender arguably hit their zenith in the early 1990s with the publication of a number of reports and popular books about girls and their educational disadvantages. According to Alderman and King (1998) the American Association of University Women (AAUW) garnered the largest media splash with the publication of How Schools Shortchange Girls (1992). In the report, the AAUW argues that math and science curriculum and pedagogy, biased standardized tests, and environments that do not account for girls' special concerns are educationally depriving girls.

In the global context, Dolata. Ikeda and Murimba (2004) state that the issue of real and perceived disparities in gender strategies from a multi-sectoral perspective, education included, has led to calls for enhanced gender mainstreaming and integration to achieve equality. Colclough, Rose and Tembon (2006) Gender Integration involves identifying and then addressing gender differences and inequalities during program and project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Alderman and King (1998) posit that gender mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programs, in all areas and at all levels. Akpalu et.al (1999), Hewett and Lloyd (2004) state that gender mainstreaming is a
strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in critical sectors. These include; all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.

Since the 1980s, researchers have often cited traditional attitudes about girls' and women's abilities and roles or different expected returns to the family for educating sons and daughters as reasons that girls' education might be disadvantaged (Honig and Hershatter 1988; Wolf 1985). Families could expect different returns because they perceive a gender gap in the earnings outcomes of schooling or because they anticipate old age support from sons more than from daughters (Jacka 1997; Andors 1990). These attitudes or expectations may translate into differences in investments in children, based on their gender; differences in treatment may translate into differences in children's own educational performance. Eventually, some combination of these factors is thought to lead to differences in educational attainment that favor boys. According to Leach (2004), regarding the access and completion of education, girls' drop out of education in greater numbers than boys where overall survival rates were low and gender disparities high. In some countries with high enrolments, however, an opposite picture emerged, with more girls enrolled and staying on in school than boys, for example, in most Caribbean and South American countries, Philippines, Sri Lanka, and some Southern African countries such as Namibia, Lesotho, and Zambia (Leach, 2004). In many of these countries, too, national data showed that girls' achievement was also higher than those of boys. There was an increasing evidence of boys playing truant and dropping out of school, even in the less well-resourced countries where national data still showed them achieving better examination grades than girls. So the picture is complex, and boys too are at risk (Leach, 2004:5).

According to Schultz (2000), whereas studies in some Commonwealth countries showed that there were more females enrolled in school, at all levels, than males. Thus, while the quest for gender equality in education rightly focus mainly on young women and girls, a case of reverse bias could be argued were the situation of boys and men not addressed
too. The inference was that girls' successes were gained and the less attention given for boys' education; particularly in those regions of the Commonwealth Nations where enrolment, attendance and achievement rates were increasingly lower for boys than girl. Out of 25 countries included in the study, which were account seven years data /1986$92 /$, just over half, in 13 countries, had higher ratios for female secondary school enrolment; and 12 countries had higher, equal, or practically equal ratios for female primary school net enrolment (Schultz, 2000).

Surprisingly, from the 12 countries, the five were from Africa: Malawi, New Guinea, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia; where girls' net enrolment was higher than boys'. But, in most instances, girls' were outperforming boys despite the many structural and cultural obstacles, which girls experienced in gaining access to, and participating in education activities (Leo-Rhynie, 1999). The Schultz also argued that the traditional disparity is changing in Africa as young women are catching up to men in terms of schooling, and even surpassing them in such countries as Kenya (Schultz, 2000:20). These facts or experiences showed that since schools have opened their doors to girls schooling their achievement rate was outshining the boys by overcoming their many barriers to their schooling. It is upon this background that the researcher sought to evaluate the effect of gender disparity on primary education of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency.

### 1.2 Statement of Problem

Gender inequalities in education exist in almost all poor countries and among the poor within these countries. According to World Bank (2001), there has been a considerable increase in gender inequality in education in low income countries over the last few decades. Gender inequality and disparity are now considered as an essential concept for the analysis and alleviation of poverty because of its adverse impacts on a number of valuable development goals. Thus educational access is influenced by poverty in various ways.

Millennium Development Goal 3 aims at promoting gender equality and empowerment of women (UN, 2010). It addresses access to education through Target 4 which provides a framework for the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education and this was to done by 2005 and in all levels of education by 2015. Despite these targets and intentions, evidence points to increasing gender disparities in education.

In poor rural settings, girls’ access to education has long been a focus of scholarly and policy attention. However, the degree to which girls in such settings remain disadvantaged relative to their male counterparts is poorly established. According to Leach (2004), regarding the access and completion of education, girls' drop out of education in greater numbers than boys where overall survival rates were low and gender disparities high. In some countries with high enrolments, however, an opposite picture emerged, with more girls enrolled and staying on in school than boys. This is an indication that the traditionally held concept that girls are normally disadvantaged when it comes to access, performance and retention of boys school is rapidly changing.

In Kenya, assessment reports from various parts of the country reveal disparities in gender enrolment, retention and completion of education between boys and girls (KEAA, 2008). The Kenya Education Advocacy Alliance (KEAA) report indicated that giris' enrolment in primary school education in Central, Western and parts of Rift Valley provinces had been rising at an average of $13.8 \%$ annually in the last five years. This study argues that although advocacy aimed at the girl child is noble, there is a real danger of creating a bigger gender parity challenge in the context of a neglected boy-child. The over emphasis on the girl-child education in Central Province has seen the number of boys attending schools going down. To support this concern, the Global Fund for Children (GFC, 2002) initiated grass root networks across Africa to address the issue of a neglected boy-child population in educational processes. They observed that neglected boys become disillusioned, hopeless and angry making them vulnerable to negative forces such as extremism and intolerance. It is upon this background that this study was aimed at analyzing gender disparity in primary schools and how it impacts on boy child in terms of access to school, performance and retention in school.

### 1.3 Purpose of Study

The purpose of study was to analyze gender disparity in primary education of boys; a case of schools public primary education in Kikuyu Constituency, Kiambu County. This entailed analyzing the impacts of gender disparity on the boy child in terms of access to school, performance and retention in school.

### 1.4 Objectives of Study

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:
i) To establish the status of gender disparity in terms of population of boys and girls in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency
ii) To asses gender disparity on the access to primary education by boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency
iii) To analyze gender disparity in terms of performance of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency
iv) To determine gender disparity on the retention of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency

### 1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions;
i) What is the status of gender disparity in terms of population in Primary schools in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency
ii) How does gender disparity affect access of primary education of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency?
iii) How does gender disparity affect the performance of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency?
iv) How does gender disparity affect retention of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency?

### 1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will be an addition to the broad literature on gender studies. The study will generate knowledge in the field of education and gender studies. The knowledge will be useful in sensitizing and training stakeholders in gender promotion, education provision and donors to ensure an objective approach to issues of gender parity and especially approaches that place the boy child at the center of sponsorship programmes currently held by the girl child.

The findings of the study will also be important to the ministry of education. The ministry can use the findings of the study to come up with policies aimed at promoting gender parity among boys and girls in primary schools. This will help to eliminate the negative impacts that may result if there is no balance between strategies aimed at promoting girls education as opposed to boys.

### 1.7 Delimitation of Study

One of the delimitations of the study is that it was only carried out in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. This helped the researcher to save on the cost of data collection as only public primary schools in one constituency were targeted. To eliminate the limitation of lack of confidence by the respondents to give information for the study, the researcher used a letter of introduction from the university which helped in explaining the purpose for the study. This gave the respondents the confidence to give information required for the study.

### 1.8 Limitations of Study

This study envisaged some limitations that emerged in the course of fieldwork. For example, some respondents were not willing to give information due to the sensitivity on the factors influencing gender disparity in the public primary schools in the constituency. The rescarcher therefore created confidence in the respondents by assuring them that the information was required mainly for academic purposes.

### 1.9 Basic Assumptions of the Study

This study was based on the assumption that there is gender disparity in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency. The disparities existed in terms of education access, performance and retention of pupils in schools.

### 1.10 Definition of Significant Terms as used in this Study

Access means the ability of children being able to enroll in available cducational institutions

Gender disparity this is the imbalances which created between girls and boys in schools in terms of access to school, performance and retention.

Parity means equality, in status, or character with regard to access to equal opportunities in education.

Retention this is the ability of pupils to access primary education and go through the eight years course without dropping out of school.
Availability this is the right to education as social and economic right.
Acceptability means to receive education offered, to students with gladness or approval of society.
Affordability this is education budgetary allocation in schools.
Participation means sharing in learning; students, teachers, parents and the community.

### 1.11 Organization of the Study

This report comprises of five chapters plus the instruments of the study. In chapter one, the researcher has presented information on the background to the study, statement of the problem, the research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations of the study, basic assumptions of the study and the definition of significant terms.
Chapter Two of this study will review related literature in the area of nature of gender disparity, nature of gender disparity and education, gender disparity on access to primary education, gender disparity on school performance, gender disparity on school retention. The chapter also provides a theoretical and conceptual framework.

Chapter three describes the research design, target population of study, sample and sampling procedures, research instrument, Research instruments validity, research instruments reliability, data analysis and operationalization of variables.

Chapter four presents data analysis, results and presentation of results and finally, Chapter five presents the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO <br> LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents Literature Review in the area of nature of gender disparity, nature of gender disparity and education, gender disparity on the access to primary education, gender disparity on school performance, gender disparity on school retention, theoretical framework, and conceptual framework.

### 2.2 Nature of Gender Disparity and Education

Menon-Sen (2003) states that the right to education is a highly powerful concept. Where it is effectively guaranteed and implemented, the enjoyment of all human rights and freedoms is enhanced; where it is denied or violated, the enjoyment of other rights and freedoms is curtailed. According to Orlando (2004) international human rights law provides both those safeguards and that guidance: education must be available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable for all.

Lockheed (2009) published a booklet for the International Institute for Education and Planning (IIEP) in which she raised a number of issues on gender and social exclusion. The booklet is about the combined effects of gender and social exclusion on student participation and performance in basic education. How extensive is the problem? Why is it important? What education policies act as hidden barriers? Are legal and administrative remedies sufficient? What about affirmative action? Which policies have been effective in reaching and teaching socially excluded girls, and which ones have not? Are some remedies better suited to some countries than to other countries? What is affordable for developing countries? This study proposes to rely on some of the questions raised to examine gender parity challenges in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency.

Razave (1997) argues that quite differently from the political commitments put forward in the Education for All and in the Millennium Development Goals, human rights provide a legal framework within which it is possible to identify obligations, duty-bearers and
rights-holders. It also recognizes obstacles, denials and violations; articulate strategies that respond to universal obligations while providing for specialist interventions where the right to education is most at risk (Rugh, 2000, Sandler, 1997, Ridgeway, 1991).

UNICEF (2006) observes that gender discrimination is perhaps the most universal form of social exclusion. Gender issues, and the interaction of gender discrimination and poverty, have attracted rigorous academic analysis and now benefit from a strong conceptual basis. An overall documented trend is the move from 'Women in Development (WID)' approaches, which implied special programmes for women and girls as a 'disadvantaged' group, to 'Gender and Development (GAD)' approaches, which imply analysis and addressing of the unequal power relationships between males and females. Leo-Rhynie (1999) observes that central to a GAD approach is the concept of gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming means the consistent use of a gender perspective at all stages of the development and implementation of policies, plans, programmes and projects. In the education sector, this would include not only the activities of governments, but also those of schools, colleges, education institutions and, where appropriate, of NGOs and the private sectors as well (Evans, 1991). Rather than adding on a women's component to existing policies, plans, programmes and projects, a gender perspective informs these at all stages, and in every aspect of the decision-making process (Arnot et.al, 1999).

### 2.3 Gender Disparity on Access to Primary Education

Educational systems in most developing countries have focused on supply side- to provide enough school places for all school age children. Less focus has been paid to demand side of education, as it as always been assumed that demand will remain until universal access is achieved. Increasingly, however, there is evidence that not all parents believe in the value of schooling. Many poor parents prefer to keep their children at home to look after younger siblings or to work on the land, in the marketplace, or in wage labour. The poor quality of teaching and learning, poor facilities, high absenteeism among teachers, sexual harassment and abuse by some male teachers and pupils, and
other issues have reduced the demand for schooling. in particular of girls (Leach, 2004:25).

Leach examined that despite all the public commitments and policy statements since 1990 by donors, lenders, and governments on the need to increase female participation in education, and so many programmes had directed specifically at getting more into school, progress had been so low.... Because they focused only on gaining access for women for the benefits of these interventions. But little has done to change social perceptions of gender and the nature of dominant gender relations, and that could be in large part had explained by a narrow focus on girls that did not consider the gender nature of the society in which schools operate. Culturally sensitive ground, embedded with a multitude of traditions norms and values relating to the gender roles and relations, and to status and power in that remained heavily patriarchal social systems (Leach, 2004:6).

Leach further examined that perception about the value of educating girls as well as boys and about appropriate roles of girls and boys when they reach adulthood, the availability of jobs, the need and interests of the household, and also the attitudes and aspirations of girls themselves, all act as barriers to girls' educational opportunity. She also examined that schools themselves play a major part in reinforcing these gender views, and she argued that just getting more girls into school does not guarantee equality of opportunity or outcome. Hence, she suggested the need to examine the gender ideology that still prevails in the family, state institutions such as schools (Leach, 2004:7).

UNESCO's Report of the Expert Group argued that parity and equality are often used interchangeably if not synonymously. According to them, parity in itself is not problematic; difficulties arise when parity is attained not because women's position has improved but because men have under-achieved. They also examined that attainment of parity can also be problematic when reduction of disparity on the aggregate masks and hides disparities among groups according to age, ethnic minority status or according to regions within a country. Hence, this experts' group report recommended that as it is important not to look at parity simplistically (UNESCO, 2005:17). They further observed
that even when parity is achieved, this needs not necessarily be an indicator of equality or that there is a change in power relations. Their justification was that while reduction in disparity between women and men in education, access to incomes, etc. is a precondition for equality, but it does not indicate equality of opportunities and security if violence against women prevails, and there is no autonomy for women. Hence, they concluded that equality is only achieved if women can enjoy and exercise all fundamental rights and freedoms (UNESCO, 2005).

Thus, to fully understand the continuing inequalities in educational opportunity, Leach (2004) advised that there was need to engage in gender analysis of all aspects of educational provision, whether those were policies, institutions, curricula, teaching approaches, or forms of assessment that could help to understand why girls in some situation dropped out of school, why boys in others were becoming increasingly affected negatively, and prefer to play truant. In this regard, Leach also advised that a need to find constructive ways of working with men to transform power and gender relations without marginalizing women (Leach, 2004:8-9).

In Ethiopian context, from 1997 to 2003 the gross enrolment had progressed from $43 \%$ to $74.6 \%$ for boys, and from $26 \%$ to $53.8 \%$ for girls in seven years. However, the trend varies according to the regions. In most of the regions, the enrolment for boys had also increased by similar or greater amounts, resulting in a persistence of the gender gap. Only in the Addis Ababa Region had girls' enrolment increased more than boys' (Karlin et al, 2005:6). The Ethiopian Net enrolment figure has showed a similar trend in increase. In 1997, only one-fifth $/ 20.0 \%$ of primary school age girls were enrolled in school; and $47.2 \%$ in 2003. From 1997 to 2003, the figure for boys was being up from $29.5 \%$ to $60.6 \%$. This gender gap has grown from 9.5 percentages points to 13.4 percentage points. Based on these data, Karlin et al concluded that whatever interventions and strategies are being used to increase enrolments, they are not increasing the rate at which girls are entering the education system fast enough to reduce the gender gap. And they suggested that though the proportion of the girls' enrolment has progressed slightly, equally, the increase in the gender gap may be an artefact of the very different rates of enrolment at
the start of the period (Karlin et al. 2005). Some of the constraints identified for less progress in gender equality in education in Ethiopia by Hadra were high illiteracy rate, deep-rooted gender stereotyped cultural beliefs and practice (Hadra. 2000, cited in Haregewon and Emebet, 2003:33).

In general, the reviewed related literature in this section signifies that women's/girls' less education compared to men/boys is not a universal truth globally. Hence, in order to narrow the gender gap in primary schooling, we have to go beyond the traditional approach that was focused on addressing the supply-side of education and on female gender only. Thus, we have to start to analyse the gender nature of the society in which the school operates.

### 2.4 Gender Disparity on School Performance

Girls outperform boys in school. While it is well known that girls score significantly higher than boys on for example reading tests, there is now increasing evidence that the gender gap in school performance is closing in math and science, subjects thought of as being dominated by boys. For example, U.S. educational statistics report that between 1973 and 1999, the male advantage in mathematics and science scores at age 17 was significantly reduced (Campbell, Hombo and Mazzeo 1999). Further evidence from a different country is test scores at age 15 in Sweden. While girls clearly score higher than boys on Swedish and English tests, there is no obvious gender difference in mathematics (Swedish National Agency for Education 2004).

While the focus in educational arena has shifted in recent years from the underachievement of girls to the underachievement of boys, gender differences in education are still an important focus for concern (Powney, 1996). This is evidenced by the increasing number and range of studies of gender differences in teaching, learning and assessment (Arnot et al, 1999). The authors also note the development of new levels of awareness in the literature of gender differences in learning styles; responses to different teaching and assessment styles, content and feedback; and gender bias in teaching, examining materials and marking.

Interventions involving both girls and boys appear to be successful in addressing constraints that limit girls' participation in education (DeJaeghere 2004). Through a USAID-funded project in Ethiopia, boys became more sensitive to the multiple burdens girls face that interfere with their schooling. As a result, boys began to help their female classmates with their homework and no longer judged them intellectually inadequate (DevTech Systems, Inc. 2004). In some parts of the world, boys' educational outcomes lag behind girls' outcomes. In Botswana, Lesotho, and Namibia, some boys are taken out of school or denied entry all together to become cattle herders-a task that falls to them since many adult males are forced to seek wage employment elsewhere. Boys in Latin America and the Caribbean usually have higher repetition rates and lower achievement rates than girls. The reasons for boys' underachievement are becoming clearer through a growing number of studies. One study observed that boys' underachievement is inextricably linked to notions of gender and power (UNICEF 2003). Boys' weak performance in school may be related to their traditional socialization-for example, achievement in language and literature is considered to be more 'feminine' than 'masculine'.

In Jamaica, one study found that boys were continually told they were lazy and inattentive to their studies. This resulted in low self-esteem and poor academic achievement and test results (MSI/EQUATE 2005). Boys' underachievement is a growing problem that requires policy attention. However. it "should not divert attention from the continuing issue of low access for girls to primary and secondary education in many developing countries" (UNESCO 2007). These regional disparities do not mean that female-targeted projects are no longer needed. On the contrary, a World Bank study concluded that providing girls with a relevant, quality education necessitates a doublepronged approach that targets girls and addresses system-wide weaknesses (Kane 2004). The primary issue of targeted interventions, whether for girls or boys, is how the activity is designed and executed. According to UNESCO (2007), the targeted interventions addressing gender inequalities should: meet an identified need and demand, be grounded in sound gender analysis, promote learning, bring about systemic changes and transform the power dynamics between the sexes.

### 2.5 Gender Disparity on School Retention

Gender cuts across a wide range of constraints that lead to drop out. Colclough et al (2000:4) talked about gendered cultural practices which influence girls and boys educational chances and experiences. They describe, for example, gendered roles in society which shape, 'the balance of incentives for girls and boys to attend school'. For example, in some societies the main leadership roles in public life are taken by men, which could potentially restrict the aspirations of girls; marriage of girls happens at a younger age than boys, limiting the likelihood of continued schooling; and labour market practices can influence both male and female withdrawals differently.

There is limited research with drop outs themselves which might provide insights into how individuals see gendered practices affecting schooling decisions. However, research by Vavrus (2002) carried out in the Kilimanjaro Region of Tanzania does explore perceptions of retention, using essays from girls in school and life histories of girls out of secondary school, as well as observation and questionnaires/questionnaire interviews. With a small sample ( 70 girls) it highlights how a variety of factors influence female retention in schools, such as a father's presence in the household, economic resources of the household, and education levels of household members.

In numerical terms, educational access for some girls is increasing for example, in Bangladesh, educational access for girls is generally higher for girls than boys. Research in Guinea (Colclough et al, 2000) indicates that compared with ten years ago, parents believed that many more of them were now aware of the broader benefits of girls' schooling, such as being able to read and write, earning incomes to help themselves and taking better care of their own families. Yet despite some advances, Colclough et al (2000) claim that negative attitudes towards girls' schooling, relative to boys' schooling, remain. Similarly, Boyle et al (2002) indicate that even contexts where the value of education is perceived to be in gendered terms 'equal,' when households are faced with financial difficulties it is still the girls who are more likely to be pulled from schools.

### 2.6 Theoretical Framework

The study will employ the theory of Discrimination discussed by Thompson (1998). The theory states that discrimination is simply a matter of identifying differences, and can be positive or negative. In normative usage, though. its meaning is negative. The process by which, people are allocated to particular social categories with an unequal distribution of rights, resources, opportunities and power. It is a process through which certain groups and individuals are disadvantaged and oppressed. It is the differential treatment of persons supposed to belong to a particular class of persons- again a neutral stance in that differential treatment may be positive or negative. It is necessary to ascertain whether differential treatment is morally justifiable and/ or lawful. It is not necessarily differential treatment that is problematic, but the basis for it.

This theory has important belief that relate to the focus of the proposed study. For example it will be a useful guide to discrimination and identification of differences between the needs of boys and girls by public schools. The theory will also guide in the discussion on disadvantages that arise out of discrimination. Finally the justification of discrimination in public institutions will be discussed as part of the tenets of the theory and findings during field work.

### 2.6.1 Theoretical Framework for Understanding Gender Inequality in Education

Gender-based inequalities constitute the most complex prism and equally complicate the problematic to be demystified. The gender stereo-typing is an outcome of inherited beliefs apotheosized into values and exploitative system. It may appear to be easy to classify women as a group, as is done around the world, but it is not about a group trapped in a condition and another group left free outside it. There is a need to look at the issue of gender equality, focusing of historical accretions of a gender biased identity. It therefore requires a normative framework to understand the process governing the issue of inequalities manifested in terms of gender. The conceptual model below is an indication of a process that can provide evidence on the state of affairs. The identification framework, borrowing from recent developments in rights literature, is divided into five clusters- availability, accessibility, acceptability, affordability and participation. Each of
which has different indicators or proxy variables to capture the continuum of inequalization

Figure 1 Inequality Assessment Model


Gender parity in terms of educational access does not necessarily resolve gender disparities. Even when girls have access to education and literacy, the access fails to equalize the balance of power between genders. Ensuring gender equality for girls and boys means that girls and boys have equal opportunities to enter school, as well as to participate in and bencfit from the range of subjects or other learning experiences that are offered in classrooms and schools. Through gender-sensitive curricula, learning materials, and teaching-learning processes, girls and boys become equally equipped with the life skills and attitudes that they need to achieve their fullest potential within and outside of the educational system regardless of their sex.

### 2.7 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual Framework below shows the relationship between the variables of the study. The independent variable for the study was Gender disparity while the dependent variables were access to primary school education, academic performance of boys and retention in primary education. The intervening variables for the study were educational background of parents and culture.

Figure 2 Conceptual Framework


## CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and research methodology used in the study. This was set out in sections under sub-headings containing research design, target population of the study, sample size, sample and sampling procedure, rescarch instrument, research instruments validity, research instrument reliability, data analysis and operationalization of variables.

### 3.2 Research Design

Descriptive survey design was used for the study. The main advantage of this type of design is that it enables researchers to asses the situation within the study area at the time of the study. The researcher therefore used the design to analyze gender disparity on primary education of Boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. According to Cooper (1996), a descriptive study is concerned with finding out who, what, where and how of a phenomenon which is the concern of this study. Thus the researcher deemed the design appropriate for the study as it allowed for the analysis of gender disparity in the selected schools. The design allowed the researcher to establish the status of gender disparity in terms of access, performance and retention in school.

### 3.3 Target Population

The population for the study was public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. According to the Kikuyu Constituency strategic plan (2003-2013) there are a total of 57 public primary schools in the constituency. The target population for the study was teachers and head teachers. Table 3.1 shows the summary of the distribution.

Table 3.1 Summary of the Population

| Zone | Number of school | Number of Teachers |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Kabete | 17 | 215 |
| Muguga | 14 | 192 |
| Thogoto | 12 | 228 |
| Karai | 14 | 164 |
| Total | 57 | 799 |

### 3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedure

Systematic random sampling
Although the Kikuyu Constituency Strategic Plan 2003-2013 provides statistics of the number of primary schools as 57, the document further provides respective zones of the most populated public primary schools and number of teachers in each zone as shown in Table 3.2

Table 3.2: Summary of Sampling Frame

| Type of sample | Population size | Sample size |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Public primary schools | 57 | 48 |
| Head teachers | 57 | 48 |
| Teachers | 799 | 260 |

A total of 48 schools were sampled for the study. The researcher sampled 260 teachers and 48 head teachers. thus a total of 308 respondents will be targeted by the study. Sampling for teachers were done as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Sample Size for Teachers

| Zone | Number of <br> school | Number of <br> Teachers | Schools <br> Sampled | Number of <br> Teachers |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kabete | 17 | 215 | 14 | 70 |
| Muguga | 14 | 192 | 12 | 62 |
| Thogoto | 12 | 228 | 10 | 94 |
| Karai | 14 | 164 | 12 | 54 |
| Total | $\mathbf{5 7}$ | $\mathbf{7 9 9}$ | $\mathbf{4 8}$ | $\mathbf{2 6 0}$ |

## Source: Kikuyu Constituency Strategic Plan (2003-2013)

Based on Table 2, the study selected a systematic random sample of 260 teachers from 48 public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. This sample represents estimation of sample size in research using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for determining sample size, for a given population (Sekaran, 2006). Krejcie and Morgan used the following formula to determine sampling size:
$S=\frac{X^{2} N P(1-P)}{d^{2}(N-1)+X^{2} P(1-P)}$
where
$\mathrm{S}=$ required sample size
$\mathrm{N}=$ the given population size
$\mathrm{P}=$ population proportion that for table construction has been assumed to be .50 , as this magnitude yields the maximum possible sample size required
$d=$ the degree of accuracy as reflected by the amount of error that can be tolerated in the fluctuation of a sample proportion $p$ about the population proportion P - the value for d being .05 in the calculations for entries in the table, a quantity equal to $\pm 1.96 \mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{p}}$
$X^{2}=$ table value of chi square for one degree of freedom relative to the desired level of confidence, which was 3.841 for the .95 confidence level represented by entries in the table

### 3.5 Research Instruments

Primary data was used for the study where questionnaires were used as instrument for data collection. By considering the literacy level of the students at the University, questionnaire was the most preferred instrument for data collection as the respondents were at a position to read, understand and give appropriate answers to the items addressed.

## Questionnaire

Orodho (2004) defines a questionnaire as an instrument used to gather data, which allows a measurement for or against a particular viewpoint. He emphasizes that a questionnaire has the ability to collect a large amount of information in a reasonably quick space of time. Best and Khan (1993) observe that questionnaires enables the person administering them to explain the purpose of the study and to give meaning of the items that may not be clear. The researcher therefore used questionnaires to collect data from the teachers in the sampled primary schools in the Constituency. The instrument was chosen because the targeted population was considered literate which minimized the interpretation of the questions for their understanding to capture reliable information. The questionnaires were divided into different sections where section A contained questions on the background information of the respondents, section $B$ contained questions on the status of gender disparity in terms of population, section C contained items on gender disparity on access to primary education and section D contained items on gender disparity in terms of performance. Likert scale was used in questions testing on the degree of the respondents' agreement with particular variables of the study.

### 3.6 Research Instrument Validity

Piloting was done to test on the validity and reliability of the instruments of the study. The instruments of the study were tested in three schools which were not included in the actual study. The piloting was done to ensure clarity of the final instruments for the actual data collection. The purpose of this pre-testing was to assist in finding out any weakness that might be contained in the instruments of the study before the actual data collection.

According to Mugenda \& Mugenda (2003), validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of data actually represent the phenomena under study. A valid instrument should accurately measure what it is supposed to measure. The validity of the research instruments were tested in a number of ways. The researcher reviewed the literature evidence of content validation studies and reported reliability statistics from published studies that have used the instrument. This assisted in assessing how suitable the instrument was for the study. The researcher also sought opinion from experts, (Lynn, 1986) to review the instrument for relevance and clarity. Upon receiving feedback, the researcher evaluated the returned survey review tools and eliminated items, or modified the research instrument based on the feedback.

### 3.7 Research Instrument Reliability

While content validity rarely changes, Polit \& Beck (2004: 421) cautions that the "reliability of an instrument is a property not of the instrument but of the instrument when administered to a certain sample under certain conditions." They call for a reestimate of reliability with each population surveyed. This should be done each time a research instrument is used (Knapp, 1985). Determining reliability requires reliability testing to ascertain both stability and internal consistency of the research instrument. A study population is needed. For purposes of this study, piloting was done on a small population to test the reliability of the questionnaire. Split-half reliability reflects the correlations between two halves of the instrument. The estimate would vary depending on how the items in the measure are split into two halves (Sekaran, 2006). The correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores" (Polit \& Beck, 2004 : 417) will then be established.

Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation is the method of measuring the degree of relationship between two variables. This coefficient assumes the; that there is linear relationship between the two variables; that the two variable are casually related which means that one of the variables is independent and the other one is dependent; and a large number of independent causes are operating in both variables so as to produce a normal distribution.

Pearson's correlation coefficient between two variables is defined as the covariance of the two variables divided by the product of their standard deviations:

$$
\rho_{X, \zeta}=\frac{\operatorname{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_{X} \sigma_{Y}}=\frac{E\left[\left(X-\mu_{X}\right)\left(Y-\mu_{y}\right)\right]}{\sigma_{X} \sigma_{Y}},
$$

The above formula defines the population correlation coefficient, commonly represented by the Greek letter $\rho$ (rho). Substituting estimates of the covariances and variances based on a sample gives the sample correlation coefficient, commonly denoted $r$ :

The correlation coefficient, $\mathbf{r}$ show the degree of linear relationship between two variables. So given pairs of values for variables $X$ and $Y$, designated ( $x, y$ ), $r$ is given by the following formula:
$r=\frac{N \sum X Y-\left(\sum X\right)\left(\sum Y\right)}{\sqrt{N \sum X^{2}-\left(\sum X\right)^{2}} \sqrt{N \sum Y^{2}-(\Sigma Y)^{2}}}$
Where:
$r$ show the degree of linear relationship between two variables.
n is the total sample size
$\Sigma$ is the sum of all values or function of values.
X is dependent variables
Y is independent variables

## Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula

Spearman Brown Prophecy Formula below was used to test on the reliability of the instruments:
$2 \times$ Corr. Between the Halves
1+Corr. Between the Halves

$$
r=\frac{2 r}{r+1}
$$

Where $\mathbf{r}=$ reliability of the coefficient resulting from correlating the scores of the odd items with the scores of the even items. According to Orodho (2004), a correlation coefficient of about 0.8 will be judged high enough for the instruments to be accepted as reliable for the study. The researcher got a correlation coefficient of 0.76 for the questionnaires. The instruments were therefore considered reliable for the study.

### 3.8 Data Analysis

Primary data from the field was edited first to eliminate errors made during data collection. Coding was done to translate question responses into specific categories. Coding was expected to organize and reduce research data into manageable summaries. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics while content analysis techniques were used to analyze qualitative data collected using interview schedules. Microsoft EXCEL package was used to analyze the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to describe the data. The analyzed data were presented in form of tables, pie-charts and bar-graphs where applicable.

### 3.9 Operationalization of Variables

The study variables are as presented in table 3.4. The first column presents the objective of the study, the second column presents the variables to be investigated, the third column description of the variables to be investigated, column four presents the indicators for testing the variables, column five presents the nature of measurement to be employed in measuring the variable and column six presents the data analysis method.

Table 3.4: Operationalization of Variables

| Objective | Variables | Description <br> of Variable | Indicators <br> (t-test) | Measurement <br> Scale | Types of <br> Analysis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| To establish the status of <br> gender disparity in terms <br> of population of boys <br> and girls in public <br> primary schools in <br> Kikuyu constituency | Population | General | -Target gender <br> parity programmes <br> - The ratio between <br> the female and <br> male rates and is a <br> measure of equality <br> between male and <br> female. | Nominal | Descriptive |
| To determine gender <br> disparity on the access to <br> primary education by <br> boys in public primary <br> schools in Kikuyu <br> constituency | Access to <br> school | Dependent <br> Variable | Enrolment ratio of <br> both gender into <br> school | Nominal | Descriptive |
| To analyze gender <br> disparity in terms of <br> performance of boys in <br> public primary schools <br> in Kikuyu constituency | Performanc <br> in School | Dependent <br> Variable | Records of grades <br> attained by <br> individual pupils in <br> their current classes <br> and where <br> applicable, records <br> of preceding <br> classes | Nominal | Descriptive |
| To determine gender <br> disparity on the retention <br> of boys in public <br> primary schools in <br> Kikuyu constituency | Retention <br> in school | Dependent <br> Variable | -Tme of enrolment <br> -Time of exit at any <br> stage of schooling <br> Percentage of <br> records of pupils <br> completing in the <br> final grade <br> recommended by <br> the government of <br> Kenya | Nominal | Descriptive |

## CHAPTER FOUR DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data analysis, results and presentation of results. The presentation of the demographic information of the respondents followed by presentation of the findings as per the objectives the study.

### 4.2 Demographic Data Analysis

In this section, the researcher sought to get information on the gender, age, highest academic qualification, teaching experience. classes for which they were standing in as class teachers and the period of service as class teachers. The findings of the study were as presented in the following sections:

### 4.2.1 Distribution of Respondents by Gender

To establish the gender of the respondents, they were requested to indicate their gender. The study found that $147(58 \%)$ of the respondents were female while $105(42 \%)$ were male. This is an indication that most of the teachers in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency are female. These were presented in Table 4.1

## Table 4.1 Distribution of Teacher Respondents by Gender

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Female | 147 | 58 |
| Male | 105 | 42 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.2.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

To establish the ages of the respondents, they were requested to indicate their age brackets. The study found that $33 \%$ were between $26-35$ years. $31 \%$ were between $36-45$ years, $21 \%$ were between $46-55$ years, $9 \%$ were between $18-25$ years $6 \%$ were above 55 years. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.2
Table 4.2 Percentage Distributions of Respondents by Age

|  | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 18-25 Years | 22 | 9 |
| $26-35$ Years | 86 | 33 |
| $36-45$ Years | 78 | 31 |
| $46-55$ Years | 52 | 21 |
| Above 55 Years | 14 | 6 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.2.3 Distribution of Respondents by Teaching Experience

In establishing the teaching experience, the respondents were requested to indicate the years for which they had been teachers. The study found that $35 \%$ of the respondents had taught for a period between $11-15$ years, $31 \%$ had taught for a period above 15 years, $19 \%$ for a period between 6-10 years, $10 \%$ for a period between $2-5$ years and $5 \%$ for a period less than 2 years. From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that most of the teachers interviewed $85 \%$ had taught for a period more than five years. The researcher therefore concluded that most of the respondents interviewed had taught for a long period of time and therefore were considered to have information on gender proportions among pupils in their schools. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.3

Table 4.3 Distribution of Respondents by Teaching Experience

| Teaching Experience (Years) | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Less than two years | 12 | 5 |
| $2-5$ years | 25 | 10 |
| 6 -10 years | 48 | 19 |
| $11-15$ years | 90 | 35 |
| Over 15 years | 77 | 31 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.2.4 Distribution of Class Teachers by Classes they represented

Teacher respondents were asked to indicate the classes for which they were class teachers. The study found that $15 \%$ of the respondents were class teachers for class eight. From the findings of the study, it can be said that all the classes in primary schools were well represented in the sampling of the class teachers thus the findings of the study was considered as different views and classes were included in the study. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Distribution of Class Teachers by Classes they represented

| Teaching Experience (Years) | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Class 1 | 25 | 11.5 |
| Class 2 | 22 | 10.0 |
| Class 3 | 24 | 11.0 |
| Class 4 | 27 | 12.0 |
| Class 5 | 29 | 13.0 |
| Class 6 | 30 | 13.5 |
| Class 7 | 31 | 14.0 |
| Class 8 | 32 | 15.0 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 2 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.2.5 Period of Service as a Class Teacher

Class teachers interviewed were requested to indicate the period for which they had served as class teachers. The study found that $26 \%$ of the respondents had served for a period between 11-15 years. The study revealed $d$ that $19 \%$ had served for a period between 6-10 years, $18 \%$ had served for a period between $2-5$ years, $17 \%$ had served for a period between 16-20 years, $13 \%$ had served for a period above 20 years and $7 \%$ had served for a period below two years. From the findings of the study, it can be said that majority of the class teachers (75\%) had served for a period above 5 years; thus the information collected were considered to be accurate and reliable as they were collected from experienced teachers. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Period of Service as a Class Teacher

| Period of Service | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Below two years | 15 | 7 |
| 2-5 Years | 39 | 18 |
| 6-10 Years | 42 | 19 |
| 11-15 Years | 58 | 26 |
| 16-20 Years | 37 | 17 |
| Above 20 Years | 29 | 13 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 2 0}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.3 The Status of Gender Disparity in terms of Population of Boys and Girls in

 Public Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency
### 4.3.1 Population of Boys and Girls in Primary Schools in Kikuyu Constituency

The respondents were requested to indicate the majority of the school/class population based on their gender. The study portrayed that $44 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls were the majority. The study also revealed that $42 \%$ indicated that Boys were the majority and $14 \%$ indicate that the number of Boys and Girls were equal. From the findings of the study it can be said that girls were slightly more than girls in the schools studied. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Population of Boys and Girls in Primary Schools in Kikuyu Constituency

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Boys | 106 | 42 |
| Girls | 111 | 44 |
| Equal | 35 | 14 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.4 Gender Disparity on the Access to Primary Education by Boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency

### 4.4.1 Imbalance in Access to School between Boys and Girls

The respondents were requested to indicate whether there was imbalance in terms of access to schools between Boys and Girls in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The study found that $53 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was imbalance while $47 \%$ indicated that there was balance in the access to primary schools between Boys and Girls. From the findings of the study, it can be said that there was a disparity in the access to primary education in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Imbalance in Access to School between Boys and Girls

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 134 | 53 |
| No | $\mathbf{1 1 8}$ | 47 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

The reasons for their answers, for those who mentioned that girls were many explained that more girls enroll in the schools than boys. Other explanations were that there were low birth and survival rates for Boys compared to girls and that there was high schools drop out rates among boys compared to Girls.

### 4.4.2 Imbalance in the Opportunities for Access to School a mong Boys and Girls

The respondents were requested to indicate whether there was imbalance in the opportunities for access to Primary education among boys and girls in Kikuyu Constituency. The study revealed that $61 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was imbalance while $39 \%$ indicated that there was no imbalance in the opportunities for the access to primary education between Girls and Boys. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Imbalance in the Opportunities for Access to School among Boys and Girls

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 153 | 61 |
| No | 99 | 39 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.4.3 Priority in Terms of Opportunity to Access Primary education between Girls and Boys

The respondents were requested to indicate the group which was given priority in terms of access to primary education in Kikuyu Constituency. The study portrayed that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls were given the first priority while $48 \%$ indicated that Boys were given the first priority. According to Colclough et al. (2000), in numerical terms, educational access for some girls is increasing e.g. Bangladesh, and in others, educational access for girls is generally higher for girls than boys, e.g. South Africa. They add that besides the changes, negative attitudes towards girls' schooling, relative to boys' schooling, remain. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Priority in Terms of Opportunity to Access Primary education between Girls and Boys

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Girls | 131 | 52 |
| Boys | 121 | 48 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

Reasons for their answers, for those who indicated that girls were given priority mentioned that more girls attend schools than boys as justified by the class sizes and the emphasis on girl child education thus neglecting boys. Those who indicated that boys were given priority mentioned that: the belief that boys performed better than girls.

### 4.4.4 Cases of Non-Attendance of School among School going Age

The respondents were requested whether there were cases of non-attendance of school among the school going age in Kikuyu Constituency. The study found that all the respondents interviewed ( $100 \%$ ) indicated that there were such cases.

The respondents were further requested to indicate the majority of those not attending school in terms of gender. The study established that $68 \%$ of the respondents indicated that majority of those not attending school were Boys while $32 \%$ indicated that they were Girls. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Cases of Non-Attendance of School among School going Age

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Boys | 172 | 68 |
| Girls | 80 | 32 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.4.5 Factors Leading to Gender Disparity in primary Schools

The respondents were requested to indicate the level of their agreement with different statement on the factors leading to gender disparity in schools. The findings are as presented in the following tables according to each of the statements.

On the disparity in the enrolment of pupils, the study revealed that $66 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that there was significant disparity in enrollment rates in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency in favor of girls. The findings are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Disparity in Enrolment in Primary Schools in Kikuyu Constituency

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | f | \% | $f$ | \% | f | \% | F | \% | f | \% |
| There is a significant disparity in enrollment rates in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency in favor of girls | 167 | 66 | 47 | 19 | 8 | 3 | 22 | 9 | 8 | 3 | 252 | 100 |

Regarding discrimination, the study found that $37 \%$ of the respondents agreed with the statement that discrimination against boys education had led to gender disparity in schools. This is an indication that discrimination was one of the factors causing disparity in the enrolment of boys and girls in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The findings are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Effect of Discrimination of Gender Disparity

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | $f$ | \% | I | \% | F | \% | F | \% | f | \% |
| Discrimination against boys education has led to gender disparity in schools | 78 | 31 | 94 | 37 | 23 | 9 | 18 | 7 | 39 | 16 | 252 | 100 |

In regard to gender parity, the study found that that $43 \%$ disagreed with the statement that gender parity encouragement has no effect on enrollment rates for the boy-child in Kikuyu Constituency. These findings are supported by the findings of Colclough et al (2000:4) who found that gendered roles in society shape, 'the balance of incentives for girls and boys to attend school'. For example, in some societies the main leadership roles in public life are taken by men, which could potentially restrict the aspirations of girls; marriage of girls happens at a younger age than boys, limiting the likelihood of continued
schooling; and labour market practices can influence both male and female withdrawals differently. The findings are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13 Effect of the Encouragement of Gender Parity

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | $f$ | \% | f | \% | F | \% | F | \% | $f$ | \% |
| Gender parity encouragement has no effect on enrollment rates for the boy-child in Kikuyu Constituency | 17 | 7 | 23 | 9 | 31 | 12 | 108 | 43 | 73 | 43 | 252 | 100 |

In the effect of culture, the study found that $49 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that deep-rooted gender stereotyped cultural beliefs and practices results into gender disparity in schools. This is an indication that culture contributed to gender disparity in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The findings are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Gender Stereotyped Culture

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% | F | \% | F | \% | f | \% |
| Deep-rooted gender stereotyped cultural beliefs and practices results into gender disparity in schools | 123 | 49 | 79 | 31 | 11 | 4 | 24 | 10 | 15 | 6 | 252 | 100 |

In regard to the effect of the society, the study found that $55 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that the nature of the society in which the school is situated and their attitude towards education of boys affect the enrolment of boys in schools. Thus the society is also considered to influence gender disparity in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The findings are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Effect of the Nature of the Society

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | f | \% | ¢ | \% | F | \% | F | \% | $f$ | \% |
| The nature of the society in which the school is situated and their attitude towards education of boys affect the enrolment of boys in schools | 139 | 55 | 83 | 32 | 7 | 3 | 14 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 252 | 100 |

From the findings of the study, it can be said that high enrolment rates of girls, nature of the society and cultural practices are the major factors leading to gender disparity among pupils in schools. Other factors leading to gender disparity in education included: drug abuse and lack of knowledge on the importance of educating children

### 4.5 Gender Disparity in terms of Performance of Boys in Public Primary Schools in

## Kikuyu Constituency

### 4.5.1 Difference in Terms of Performance of Girls and Boys

The respondents were requested to indicate whether there was difference in terms of performance among girls and boys. The study found that $94 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was a difference in the performance of Girls and Boys in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The Findings of the study are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Difference in Terms of Performance of Girls and Boys

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 238 | 94 |
| No | 14 | 6 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

Those who indicated that there was a difference in the performance were further asked to indicate the gender which performed better than the other. The study found that $56 \%$ of the respondents indicated that Boys performed better than Girls in examinations while $44 \%$ indicated that Girls performed better than Boys. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Gender Difference in Performance

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Boys | 141 | 56 |
| Girls | 111 | 44 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 3 8}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.5.2 Performance of Girls and Boys in Primary Schools

The respondents were asked to indicate the level of their agreement with different statements on the performance of Boys and Girls. The findings of the study were as presented in the following tables.

On the statement that girls are given more privilege, the study found that $37 \%$ of the respondents agreed with the statement that girls are given more privilege to attend schools by their parents compared to boys thus improving their performance compared to their male counterparts. The findings were as presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Girls are given more Privilege Compared to Boys

| Statement | Strongl y Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | F | \% | f | \% | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Girls are given more privilege to attend schools by their parents compared to boys which had improved their performance compared to boys | 61 | 24 | 92 | 37 | 10 | 4 | 64 | 25 | 25 | 10 | 252 | 100 |

On the promotion of girls' education, the study found that $50 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that due to the promotion of girls child education, boy child has been neglected leading to a drop in their performance over the years compared to their female counterparts. The findings were as presented in Table 4.19

Table 4.19 Promotion of Girl Child Education

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f |
| Due to the promotion of girls <br> child education, boy child has <br> been neglected leading to a <br> drop in their performance <br> compared to girls | 129 | 50 | 82 | 33 | 2 | 1 | 24 | 10 | 15 | 6 | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ |

On performance, the study found that $45 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that Girls were performing much better in subjects which were normally dominated by boys such as mathematics. The findings were as presented in Table 4.20

Table 4.20 Girls are Performing Better in Particular Subjects

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ |
|  | 111 | 45 | 97 | 38 | 8 | 3 | 25 | 10 | 11 | 4 | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |
| Girls are currently performing <br> much better in subjects which <br> were normally dominated by <br> boys such as mathematics |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

On the performance of boys, the study revealed that $37 \%$ agreed that boys still perform better than girls even through the gender disparity in performance is narrowing. The findings were as presented in Table 4.21

Table 4.21 Boys Perform Better than Girls

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | F | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f |

The girls' performance was found to be $46 \%$, it was strongly agreed that Girls have performed better than boys academically as a result of a gender parity support program that favors. The findings were as presented in Table 4.22

Table 4.22 Girls Perform better than Boys

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | \% |

On the statement that boys still perform better than girls, the study found that $54 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that Boys still performed well regardless of girl-child centered gender support programs. Campbell, Hombo and Mazzeo (1999), found that beside the notion that girls score significantly higher than boys on for example reading tests, there is now increasing evidence that the gender gap in school performance is closing in math and science, subjects thought of as being dominated by boys. For example, U.S. educational statistics report that between 1973 and 1999, the male advantage in mathematics and science scores at age 17 was significantly reduced. The findings were as presented in Table 4.23

Table 4.23 Boys Perform better than Girls regardless of Girl-Child Centeredness

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | \% | F | \% | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Boys still perform well regardless of girl-child centered gender support programs | 135 | 54 | 64 | 25 | 3 | 1 | 33 | 13 | 17 | 7 | 252 | 100 |

On the discrimination of the Boy child, it was found that $43 \%$ disagreed with the statement that due to the discrimination of boy child, their performance has gone down compared to their female counterparts. The findings were as presented in Table 4.24

Table 4.24 Discrimination of Boy Child

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | F | \% | F | \% | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Due to the discrimination of boy child, their performance has gone down compared to their female counterparts | 88 | 34 | 70 | 28 | 14 | 6 | 37 | 15 | 43 | 17 | 252 | 100 |

It was concluded that there was a drop in the performance of Boys besides the fact that they still performed better than Girls.

### 4.6 Gender Disparity on the Retention of Boys in Public Primary Schools in Kikuyu Constituency

### 4.6.1 Cases of School Drop Out

The respondents were asked to indicate whether there were cases of school drop out in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The study found that 79\% of the respondents indicated that there were cases of school drop out while $21 \%$ indicated that there were no cases of school drop. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 Cases of School Drop Out

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 198 | 79 |
| No | 54 | 21 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

The respondents were further asked to give the reasons behind there answers. Those who indicated that there were cases of school drop out mentioned the following reasons: engagement in money making activities among boys, early marriages among girls, high poverty levels, drug and substance abuse, lack of social and moral support from the community to the school going age and cultural practices.

### 4.6.2 Absenteeism among Pupils

The respondents were asked to indicate whether there was absenteeism among pupils in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The study found that $85 \%$ of the respondents indicated that absenteeism prevails in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency while $15 \%$ indicated that there was no absenteeism. The findings were as presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Absenteeism among Pupils

| Response | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Yes | 214 | 85 |
| No | 38 | 15 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

The respondents were further asked to mention the gender of pupils who absent themselves more frequently. The study found that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls absent themselves more frequently than boys while $48 \%$ indicated that Boys absent themselves more than girls. Those who indicated that girls absent themselves more frequently mentioned lack of sanitary pads as the main reason. Those indicated that boys absent themselves more frequently mentioned that boys engage in income generating activities and abuse drug abuse. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Frequency of Absenteeism between Boys and Girls

| Gender | Frequency | Percentage |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Girls | 132 | 52 |
| Boys | 120 | 48 |
| Total | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

### 4.6.3 Retention of Pupils in Schools

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with different statements on retention of pupils in school. The findings were presented in the following tables.

For the Boys' involved in income generating activities, the study also found that $66 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that Boys get involved in income generating activities early in life which affects their school attendance and retention in school. The findings are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Involvement of Boys in Income Generating Activities

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | f | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | $\mathbf{f}$ |

On the retention of Boys in schools, the study found that $52 \%$ disagreed that Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency have a problem of retaining boys in school. This is an indication that the retention of boys in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency is not a challenge. The findings are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Problem of Retaining boys in Primary Schools

| Statement | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Strongly } \\ & \text { Agree } \end{aligned}$ |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | \% | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency have a problem of retaining boys in school | 72 | 29 | 89 | 35 | 16 | 6 | 52 | 21 | 23 | 9 | 252 | 100 |

On the privilege given to girls, the study revealed that $43 \%$ disagreed that Girl child have the privilege to attend and complete primary education in large numbers compared to boys. This is an indication that the disparity is not as a result of the imbalance in the
privileges given to girls and boys in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The findings are presented in Table 4.30

Table 4.30 Girls are privileged Compared to Boys

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither Agree nor Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | \% | F | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% | $f$ | \% |
| Girl child have the privilege to attend and complete primary education in large numbers compared to boys | 38 | 15 | 98 | 39 | 32 | 13 | 41 | 16 | 43 | 17 | 252 | 100 |

Regarding the performance of Boys, the study found that $49 \%$ disagreed that Boys perform poorly in examination which forces them to drop out of school. This is an indication that the low number of Boys in schools is not as a result of their poor performance but other factors outside academics. The findings are presented in Table 4.31 .

Table 4.31 Performance of Boys in Examinations

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree <br>  |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ |
| Boys perform poorly in <br> examination which forces <br> them to drop out of school | 22 | 9 | 31 | 12 | 11 | 4 | 123 | 49 | 65 | 26 | $\mathbf{2 5 2}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ |

On retention of girls in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency, the study established that $72 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement that retention for the girlchild has improved as a result of gender parity promotion programs favoring them. This is an indication that the disparity between boys and girls in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency was as a result of promotion programs favouring the girl child. The findings are presented in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32 Retention of Girls in School

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | \% | F | \% | $f$ | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Retemtion for the girl-child has improved as a result of gender parity promotion programs favoring them | 181 | 72 | 42 | 17 | 3 | I | 18 | 7 | 8 | 3 | 252 | 100 |

The study established that $32 \%$ of the respondents disagreed with the statement that retention rates of the boy-child in primary schools in Kikuyu County have improved as a result of promotion programs. This is an indication that the available promotion programs were only aimed at improving girls' enrolment in schools at the expense of boys. The findings are presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 Retention of Boys in Schools

| Statement | Strongly <br> Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree | Disagree |  | Strongly <br> Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | f | $\%$ | F | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f | $\%$ | f |

The parents who support the boy child education, the study established that $30 \%$ agreed with the statement that parents do not give priority to boy child education which affects their school attendance and finally the completion of school. A study done by Vavrus (2002) highlighted on how a variety of factors influence female retention in schools, such as a father's presence in the household, economic resources of the household, and education levels of household members. The findings are presented in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Parents Support for Boys-Child Education

| Statement | Strongly Agree |  | Agree |  | Neither <br> Agree <br> nor <br> Disagree |  | Disagree |  | Strongly Disagree |  | Total (\%) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | f | \% | F | \% | $f$ | \% | f | \% | f | \% | f | \% |
| Parents do not give priority to boy child education which affects their school attendance and finally the completion of school | 65 | 26 | 77 | 30 | 23 | 9 | 57 | 23 | 30 | 12 | 252 | 100 |

From the findings of the study, it can be said that factors such as emphasis on girl child education has promoted retention among girls compared to boys and that Boys tend to get involved in income generating activities which lead to their drop out leading to gender disparity in schools.

The respondents were further requested to mention the factors which affected retention of pupils in primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The following factors were mentioned: lack of support programs, boy child abuse, drug abuse, poverty, child labour and culture.

### 4.6.4 Summary of the Research Findings

The following are the summary of the findings of the study as per the objectives:

On the status of gender disparity in terms of population, the study revealed that girls were the majority as indicated by $44 \%$ of the respondents. The study also established that $42 \%$ indicated that Boys were the majority and $14 \%$ indicate that the number of Boys and Girls were equal. This was an indication that girls were slightly more than girls in the schools studied.

In terms of access, 53\% of the respondents indicated that there was imbalance while 47\% indicated that there was balance in the access to primary schools between Buys and Girls.

The imbalance was evidenced by difference in the opportunities for access to primary education as indicated by $61 \%$. It also turned out that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls were given the first priority in terms of access to school while $48 \%$ indicated that Boys were given the first priority. In terms of non attendance to school, $68 \%$ of the respondents indicated that majority of those not attending school were Boys while $32 \%$ indicated that they were Girls. Factors influencing access to school to school were found to be high enrolment rates of girls, nature of the society and cultural practices.

Regarding disparity in terms of performance, $94 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there was a difference in the performance of Girls and Boys in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. This was evidenced by the finding that $56 \%$ of the respondents indicating that Boys performed better than Girls in examinations while $44 \%$ indicated that Girls performed better than Boys. The study also revealed that $54 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that Boys still performed well regardless of girl-child centered gender support programs.

On the disparity in terms of retention, $79 \%$ of the respondents indicated that there were cases of school drop out while $21 \%$ indicated that there were no cases of school drop. The study also established that $85 \%$ of the respondents indicated that absenteeism prevails in Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency while $15 \%$ indicated that there was no absenteeism. It was further portrayed that $52 \%$ of the respondents indicated that girls absent themselves more frequently than boys while $48 \%$ indicated that Boys absent themselves more than girls. Finally, $66 \%$ of the respondents strongly agreed that Boys get involved in income generating activities early in life which affects their school attendance and retention.

## CHAPTER FIVE SUMMARY OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusion and recommendation.

### 5.2 Summary of the Study

The purpose of study was to analyze gender disparity in primary education of boys; a case of schools public primary education in Kikuyu Constituency, Kiambu County. The study was guided by the following specific objectives: to establish the status of gender disparity in terms of population of boys and girls in public primary schools, to determine gender disparity on the access to primary education by boys in public primary schools, to analyze gender disparity in terms of performance of boys in public primary schools and to determine gender disparity on the retention of boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu constituency.

Literature review was presented on the major variables of the study such as the nature of gender disparity and education, gender disparity and access to education, gender disparity school performance and on gender disparity and school retention. Theory of discrimination was used to explain the variables of the study.

Descriptive research design was used for the study. The population for the study was public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The target population for the study was teachers and head teachers. Systematic random sampling technique was used to sample the schools and the respondents for the study. A total of 308 respondents were targeted by the study (constituting 260 teacher and 48 head teachers) out of which 252 responded ( 220 class teachers and 32 head teachers) giving a response rate of $82 \%$. Questionnaires and Interview schedules were used as instruments for data collection. Piloting was done to test on the Validity and reliability of the instruments. Quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive statistics while content analysis technique was used to analyze qualitative data collected using interview schedules. Microsoft EXCEL package was used
to analyze the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages was used to describe the data.

The study found that there is gender disparity in terms of population of girls and boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. It was also found that that there was disparity in terms of access to primary education Kikuyu Constituency where girls were given more priority. In terms of performance, the study found that besides the disparity in population and access to school in favour of girls, boys still performed better than girls in examinations. The study finally found that there was disparity in terms of school retention where girls were found to drop out of school in slightly large numbers compared to boys.

### 5.3 Conclusions

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that there is gender disparity in terms of population of girls and boys in public primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency. It can also be concluded that there was disparity in terms of access to primary education Kikuyu Constituency where girls were given more priority. In terms of performance, it can be concluded that besides the disparity in population and access to school in favour of girls, boys still performed better than girls in examinations. It can finally be concluded that there was disparity in terms of school retention where girls were found to drop out of school in slightly large numbers compared to boys.

### 5.4 Recommendations

The study recommended that programs for promoting boy child education should also be ongoing besides the one promoting girl child education. This will help to improve the boy child education which is suppressed by the emphasis on girl child education. Creating emphasis on boy-child education besides girl child education to ensure that boys are not left out which is perceived to be a cause of the disparity.

The study also recommended that boy child should also be given priority in terms of access to education to improve their performance in examinations and retention in school.

This can be achieved by lowering the absenteeism rate through elimination of child labour thus increasing their chances to be in school which will definitely improve their performance.

Awareness should be created in the community on the importance of educating both children irrespective of the gender. This will make the members of the community to change their attitude towards education thus increasing school attendance and completion among pupils in primary schools. Parents should give equal opportunities to both Girls and Boys without discrimination; this will allow both gender to access primary education.

The government should ensure that all school going age are in school and in cases where children are found not attending schools, the government should take action against such parents. School rules are regulations should be tightened to reduce the rate of absenteeism among pupils. This will improve their retention in school.

The school as a community should come up with strategies for ensuring that pupils attend and complete primary education. Strategies such as rewarding those performing well through giving them presents would encourage them to attend school and perform better.

### 5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This study was carried out in public Primary Schools in Kikuyu Constituency. The study focused on analyzing the gender disparity in primary education with special focus on boys. The researcher therefore recommends that another study be done to determine the factors hindering access to schools among boys in other Constituencies which was not the focus of this study.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Beldina N. Machoka

C/O School of Cont. \& Distance Education
University of Nairobi
P.O Box 30197-00100

Nairobi.

Dear Sir/Madam,

## RE: REQUEST FOR DATA

I am a post graduate student at the University of Nairobi pursuing a Masters degree in project planning and management. As part of the course requirement. I am in the process of carrying out a research project and hereby request you to be a respondent in the data collection sample population.

1 wish to assure you that all the responses in the questionnaire will be treated confidentially and will be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you in advance.

Yours Sincerely

Beldina N. Machoka
M.A student

## APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRES FOR CLASS TEACHERS

## SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

1. Name of the school (optional)
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]

3. How long have you been in the teaching profession?

| Less than two years | [ ] | $2-5$ years [ ] | $6-10$ years [ ] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $11-15$ years | [ ] | Over 15 years [ ] |  |

5. Class for which you are standing in as a class teacher $\qquad$
6. How long have you served as a class teacher $\qquad$

## SECTION B: STATUS OF GENDER DISPARITY IN TERMS OF POPULATION OF BOYS AND GIRLS

7. How many boys and girls are there in your class?

Boys $\qquad$ Girls $\qquad$
8. Considering the general population of the school, which gender are more than the other? Boys [ ] Girls [ ]

Give a brief description of the reasons why the gender you have mentioned above are more than the other? $\qquad$

## SECTION C: GENDER DISPARITY ON THE ACCESS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION

9. Considering the population and access to school by pupils in your school, do you think that there is imbalance between boys and girls opportunities to access primary
education? Yes [ ] No ]

Briefly explain your answer? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
10. What do you think are the causes of this imbalance in terms of opportunities for access to primary education between boys and girls? $\qquad$
11. Considering the opportunities for access to primary education among girls and boys, which gender do you think are advantaged over the other?
Boys [ ] Girls [ ]
Briefly explain your answer? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
12. Are there cases of school going age children not attending schools in the locality of your school? Yes [ ] No [
If yes, who are the majority in terms of composition?
Girls
[ ]
Boys
[ ]
13. The following are some statements on the factors leading to gender disparity among school going children in primary schools. Please indicate the level of your agreement with each statement with regard to your school?
1- Strongly agree
2- Agree
3- Neither agree nor disagree
4- Disagree
5-Strongly disagree

|  |  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A | There is a significant disparity in enrollment rates in <br> primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency in favor of <br> girls |  |  |  |  |  |
| B | Discrimination against boys education has led to <br> gender disparity in schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| C | Gender parity encouragement has no effect on <br> enrollment rates for the boy-child in Kikuyu <br> Constituency |  |  |  |  |  |
| D | Deep-rooted gender stereotyped cultural beliefs and <br> practices results into gender disparity in schools |  |  |  |  |  |
| E | The nature of the society in which the school is <br> situated and their attitude towards education of boys <br> affect the enrolment of boys in schools |  |  |  |  |  |

14. What are other factors leading to gender disparity on the access to primary education in your school especially focusing on the boys?

## SECTION D: GENDER DISPARITY IN TERMS OF PERFORMANCE OF BOYS

15. Is there difference in the overall performance of girls and boys in your class?
Yes
[ ]
No
[ ]

If yes, which gender performs better than the other?
Boys
[ ]
Girls
[ ]
16. The following are some statements on the performance of girls and boys in primary schools. Please indicate the level of your agreement with regard to each factor in relation to your school?
1- Strongly agree
2- Agree
3- Neither agree nor disagree
4- Disagree
5- Strongly disagree

|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A | Girls are given more privilege to attend schools by their parents compared to boys which has improve their performance compared to their male counterparts |  |  |  |  |  |
| B | Due to the promotion of girls child education, boy child has been neglected leading to a drop in their performance over the years compared to their female counterparts |  |  |  |  |  |
| C | Girls are currently performing much better in subjects which were normally dominated by boys such as mathematics |  |  |  |  |  |
| D | Boys are still performing better than girls even through the gender disparity in terms of performance between the genders is narrowing |  |  |  |  |  |
| E | There is balance between the performance of boys and girls as they compete favourably in examinations |  |  |  |  |  |
| F | Girls have performed better than boys academically as a result of a gender parity support program that favors them |  |  |  |  |  |


| G | Boys still perform well regardless of boy-child centered <br> gender support programs |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| H | Due to the discrimination of boy child, their performance has <br> gone down compared to their female counterparts |  |  |  |  |

## SECTION E: GENDER DISPARITY ON THE RETENTION OF BOYS IN SCHOOL

17. Are there cases of school dropout among pupils in your school?
Yes
[ ]
No
[ ]
18. If your answer is yes, what are the reasons behind the dropout? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
19. Do pupils absent themselves from school during the school days in your class?
Yes
[ ]
No
[ ]

If yes, which gender absent themselves form school mostly?
Girls [ ] Boys [ ]
20. What do you consider are the reasons behind their prevalence in absenteeism?
21. Are there cases of school drop out among pupils in your class?
Yes
[ ]
No
[ ]
If yes, who are the majority? Girls [ ] Boys [
22. The following are some of the statements on the retention of pupils in primary schools. Please indicate the level of your agreement with each statement in regard to your school?

| 1- Strongly agree | 2-Agree | 3- Neither agree nor disagree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4- Disagree | 5-Strongly disagree |  |


|  |  | $\mathbf{1}$ | $\mathbf{2}$ | $\mathbf{3}$ | $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathbf{5}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A | Boys gets involved in income generating activities <br> early in life which affects their school attendance and <br> performance |  |  |  |  |  |
| B | Primary schools in Kikuyu Constituency have a <br> problem of retaining boys in school |  |  |  |  |  |
| C | Girl child has the privilege to attend and complete <br> primary education in large numbers compared to <br> boys |  |  |  |  |  |
| D | Boys perform poorly in examination which forces <br> them to drop out of school |  |  |  |  |  |
| E | Retention for the girl-child has improved as a result <br> of gender parity promotion programs favoring them |  |  |  |  |  |
| F | Gender promotion programs have had no effect on <br> the retention rates of the boy-child in Kikuyu County |  |  |  |  |  |
| G | The retention rates of the boy-child in primary <br> schools in Kikuyu County have improved as a result <br> of promotion programmes |  |  |  |  |  |
| H | Parents do not give priority to boy child education <br> which affects their school attendance and finally the <br> completion of school |  |  |  |  |  |

23. What are other factors affecting retention of primary education among boys in your school? $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
24. What would you recommend to be done to reduce gender disparity in primary schools and the impacts it has on primary education of boys?
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$

APPENDIX III: ZONES IN KIKUYU CONSTITUENCY, NUMBER OF SCHOOLS PER ZONE AND THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS

|  | KABETE ZONE | Male | Female | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Cura | 2 | 7 | 9 |
| 2 | Gataara | 3 | 11 | 14 |
| 3 | Gathiga | 4 | 9 | 13 |
| 4 | Kanyariri | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| 5 | Kibiku | 3 | 12 | 15 |
| 6 | Kingeero | 4 | 13 | 17 |
| 7 | Kiranjani | 5 | 11 | 16 |
| 8 | Kamonyoni | 5 | 3 | 8 |
| 9 | Mahia-ini | 5 | 10 | 15 |
| 10 | Karura Kanyungu | 6 | 8 | 14 |
| 11 | Ndongoro | 5 | 5 | 10 |
| 12 | Ndurarua | 4 | 10 | 14 |
| 13 | Nyathuna | 5 | 8 | 13 |
| 14 | Rukubi | 4 | 4 | 8 |
| 15 | St. Mary's Kaimba | 2 | 7 | 9 |
| 16 | Wangige | 7 | 14 | 21 |
| 17 | Kibiciku | 4 | 5 | 9 |
|  | Total | 73 | 142 | 215 |
|  | MUGUGA ZONE |  |  |  |
| 1 | Fairlawns | 4 | 12 | 16 |
| 2 | Kahuho | 4 | 9 | 13 |
| 3 | Kamuguga | 4 | 14 | 18 |
| 4 | Kandegwa | 6 | 8 | 14 |
| 5 | Kanjeru | 4 | 12 | 16 |
| 6 | Kanyanyara | 5 | 4 | 9 |
| 7 | Karura | 7 | 9 | 16 |


| 8 | Muguga Model | 5 | 3 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | Muguga | 9 | 14 | 23 |
| 10 | Nderi | 5 | 11 | 16 |
| 11 | Nyariunditu | 3 | 6 | 9 |
| 12 | Utafiti | 6 | 6 | 12 |
| 13 | Gatuanabu | 6 | 2 | 8 |
| 14 | Nduma | 7 | 7 | 14 |
|  | Total | 75 | 117 | 192 |
|  | THOGOTO ZONE |  |  |  |
| 1 | Gitiba | 4 | 9 | 13 |
| 2 | Kinoo | 3 | 15 | 18 |
| 3 | Kidfarmaco | 2 | 9 | 11 |
| 4 | Kikuyu Township | 1 | 20 | 21 |
| 5 | Magutu-ini | 4 | 8 | 12 |
| 6 | Mama Ngina | 6 | 18 | 24 |
| 7 | Musa Gitau | 6 | 30 | 36 |
| 8 | Ngure | 3 | 14 | 17 |
| 9 | Rungiri | 2 | 15 | 17 |
| 10 | Thirime | 3 | 13 | 16 |
| 11 | Thogoto | 2 | 15 | 17 |
| 12 | Uthiru | 3 | 23 | 26 |
|  | Total | 39 | 189 | 228 |
|  | KARAI ZONE |  |  |  |
| 1 | Gathiru | 5 | 4 | 9 |
| 2 | Gatune | 7 | 1 | 8 |
| 3 | Gicharani | 4 | 13 | 17 |
| 4 | Gikambura | 4 | 12 | 16 |
| 5 | Kamangu | 7 | 9 | 16 |
| 6 | Kandutura | 3 | 5 | 8 |
| 7 | Lusigetti | 3 | 10 | 13 |


| 8 | Mai-A-thii | 8 | 10 | 18 |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 9 | Nachu | 11 | 4 | 15 |
| 10 | Njumbi | 3 | 6 | 9 |
| 11 | Renguti | 6 | 8 | 14 |
| 12 | Riu-Nderi | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 13 | Wambaa | 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 14 | Kanyiha | 5 | 5 | 10 |
|  | Total | $\mathbf{7 1}$ | $\mathbf{9 3}$ | $\mathbf{1 6 4}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |

